

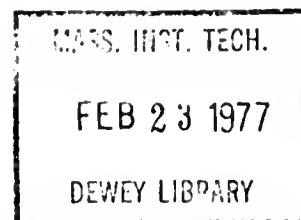
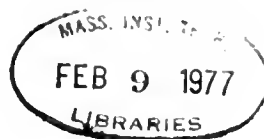


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CAREER ORIENTATION OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

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WP 896-76

December 1976

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CAREER ORIENTATION OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

INTRODUCTION

This is a study of university administrators, a group interesting in its own right and one that is of growing importance in the university setting. Our concern is with the career development needs of the group, both as perceived by the individuals and as they relate to the needs of the university.

The job of university administrator is unique and distinct from other types of administrative work. The organizational setting, the clients, the bosses, and the time frame in which the university administrator works differ from those of profit-oriented organizations. The university administrator, a category which has increased in numbers steadily since 1900,¹ works in a setting with a multiplicity of purposes: instruction, research, student services, and community services. The product of the university is difficult to evaluate and its staff includes both profession-oriented and organization-oriented members.

¹ According to Perkins (1973), there has been a steady increase of administrative personnel in universities paralleling the increased numbers of students and faculty. This has necessitated a reconstruction of the almost informal traditional administration of universities. John Q. Academsis (1958) presents an example of university administrative growth in his article "A.B. -- Academic Bureaucracy:"

Consider University X. Twenty-five years ago, one definite part of its administrative work was done by one person, aided by a secretary. Ten years later, with no change in the size of the job, there were a director, an assistant, a receptionist, and two secretaries. Today, still with no basic change, there are a director, an associate director, an assistant to the director, a receptionist, and three secretaries. Or take Division K in another university, which has had a fixed enrollment for many years. Twenty years ago, the administrative force of the division consisted of a dean and a secretary-assistant. Today, besides a dean, there are two associate deans, two vice-deans, and a battery of secretaries and assistants. (Academsis, 1958)

There was growth from a median of three or four administrative officers in the 1880's to a median of nearly sixty for the larger universities by 1930 (Perkins, 1973).

Presumably, the faculty and administration share a common orientation in their concern for knowledge in a broad sense.² However, in spite of common values, the two groups are engaged in different types of activities within the organization.

The university houses a group of autonomous scholars³ whose primary concern is less with the organization itself than with their respective disciplines. Faculty tend to show low regard for university matters and high regard for disciplinary and professional issues. This attitude often leads to academic condescension towards administrators, who are often viewed as servants, only hired to help the faculty carry out their professional role more effectively (Perkins, 1973, Schein, 1970).⁴ Furthermore, faculty members, while lacking an institutional perspective, insist on being consulted about all decisions that affect them as individuals or affect their research pursuits (Corson, 1960).

In contrasting the university administrator's position with that of a middle manager in industry, we find an individual with less power, a smaller budget, a lower salary and a more time-consuming decision-making process involving consultation with faculty. The administrator also must work in a less well organized administrative hierarchy. According to Litchfield (1959), the

² Sanders (in Perkins, 1973) reports that those working in a university supposedly share common values. But "on many campuses there now is a clear-cut dichotomy of interests between the administration and the faculty which plays havoc with the cozy ideal of shared sentiments and common values" (pp. 58-59).

³ In identifying five "career anchors," value complexes which "anchor" a person in a career and reflect a person's view of himself or herself in terms of talents and abilities, Schein finds that the predominant anchor of professors is autonomy. Their master motive or value is the need to be autonomous and independent, to work in a situation where they are maximally free of organizational constraints (Schein, 1974).

⁴ In "The Reluctant Professor" (1970), Schein feels it is "difficult and possibly undesirable to involve professors deeply in issues of university government" (p. 35). However, in his reexamination of the professorial role in the university, he recommends that the professor become more innovative with respect to both teaching and governance activities.

administrative process in the university has received far less thought than has administration in any other large and complex institution in contemporary society. The university also provides a much flatter organization in which to pursue a career.⁵ Lazarsfeld and Thielens (1958) found that faculty members in larger colleges tend to have poorer relations with administrators than do those in "very small colleges." Caplow and McGee (1958) report that faculty attitudes toward administrators are characterized by a combination of "private resentment and public submissiveness" (p. 229).

With such a negative population to serve, the university administrator, it would appear, does not hold a very desirable job. But some individuals prefer the university administrator job to "outside" jobs for a variety of reasons, including the values and climate of the university. Perhaps the work and role of university administrator is more akin to the R and D organization's manager, who must coordinate scientists and researchers, a group that also looks down on administrators as people who are, at best, a necessary evil (Farris, 1971).

The management of a university does parallel that of a corporation more closely on its business management side (accounting, operations, buildings and grounds, computing services, personnel, etc.) than on the academic side. However, Besse (in Perkins, 1973) notes three distinctions that are important here:

- (1) the university is seldom in as good a position as the corporation to bid, in dollars, for talent; (2) it cannot offer the same wide-open career ladders to its people that corporations offer; and (3) it must perpetually live with the academic fraternity's demands for things its administrative brothers cannot provide, through no fault of their own.

⁵ Bailey (in Perkins, 1973) reports that a generally accepted characteristic of the university is its flat organizational pyramid, with loose control from the top. A university may have different pyramids - a "firm, towering management pyramid for 'buildings and grounds' and an imperceptible pyramid for handling curricular matters and tenure questions In general, most institutions of higher education have enjoyed a flatter management pyramid than have most government bureaus."

An obvious parallel for the university is the government bureaucracy. Stroup (1966) outlines similarities between university and government administrators. Although their work may be similar, the organizations in which they function have different purposes and the government lacks a group with the veto power of a university faculty. The government is less subject to the types of external forces with which the university must contend: the flow of research money, fund-raising, alumni pressure, trustees and other outside governing bodies. And, most critical, there is "somewhere to go" for a government bureaucrat; the Civil Service has a multitude of grades and levels with numerous promotion possibilities for government workers. This network of delineated career paths does not and cannot exist in the universities as they are structured today.

As we have outlined above, the university administrator works in a unique type of organization and position, one in which he or she must keep the organization running smoothly yet is often subject to disdain from the faculty who are the final power source and decision-makers of the organization. Administrators, with the exception of those in the very top positions, have responsibility without power, an unenviable position.

Very little research has been done on university administrators, even though occupational sociologists study many varied occupations with a variety of methodologies. The foci of the Chicago School (E.C. Hughes, 1958, H. Becker, 1961) have been marginal or deviant occupations such as taxi driver, janitor and dance hall hostess as well as the medical profession. Other researchers have done studies of the manager's job and career (Dalton, 1959, Mintzberg, Golembiewski, 1965). Professions such as law (Smigel, 1964), medicine (Becker,

1961), engineering (Ritti, 1971), the ministry and priesthood (Fichter, 1961), the military (Janowitz, 1960), government (Warner, 1963), science (Kornhauser, 1962) and policework (VanMaanen, 1975) have been studied by both participant observation⁶ and observation/questionnaire/interview formats. In research on university careers, the main focus has been on the faculty (Caplow and McGee, 1958, Lazarsfeld and Thielens, 1958) and on the faculty's role in university governance and administration (Schein, 1970, Corson, 1960, Perkins, 1973, Caplow and McGee, 1958).

In the past decade, which has been characterized by student unrest and a cutback on funding for higher education with resulting budget cuts, the university administrator and his⁷ job have, however, received more attention by the institutions in which they work. There has been more formalization of employment in many universities; staff classification studies and systems have replaced the previous informal administrative positions and relationships.⁸ Pressure from HEW for affirmative action within the university has had an impact on administrative as well as academic hiring and promotions.⁹

Organizations of all sizes are concerned with the career development of their employees. Many even have formal programs for assessment, review and promotions. Schein (1975) stresses that this focus is a result of the dependence of the organization on the effectiveness of human performance, the negative impact that lack of motivation can produce and the shifting of social values

⁶Participant observation is a methodology employed primarily by sociologists in which the researcher becomes a part of the group he or she is studying and collects data through conversation, observation, introspection and sometimes formal methods such as interviews and questionnaires. (McCall and Simmons, 1969).

⁷The use of the male pronoun is for ease in reading and convenience. It is meant to refer to both men and women.

⁸Personal communication with K. Wilson, MIT staff classification coordinator.

⁹Personal communication with Patricia Garrison, MIT assistant to the Equal Opportunity Officer.

away from viewing work as the most important thing in life.¹⁰ Organizations must create opportunities for career fulfillment of both workers and managers in order to survive economically as well as to allow individual satisfaction and fulfillment.

The university administrator has tended to surface in this development-oriented environment. He is no longer content to be the behind-the-scenes servant as previously viewed by professors (Duryea, in Perkins, 1973). There is increasing professionalization of the university administrator, as attested to by the existence of professional publications (e.g., The Chronicle of Higher Education, College Placement Journal, NACUBO Newsletter to College & University Business Officers), professional organizations (e.g., National Association of College and University Business Officers, National Association of Educational Buyers, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers), research centers and projects on university management problems (NCHEMS-National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, Ford Foundation project on the Financing of Higher Education) and programs and conferences for the development of administrators both internal to the home university (e.g., Stanford, Cornell, Princeton, MIT) and external (e.g., University of Michigan's seminars, Harvard Business School's Institute for Educational Management, Conference on College and University Planning).

In spite of the increasing importance of the administrator's job in managing the university in a period of decreasing funds yet increasing expenses, many faculty harbor ambivalent feelings toward administrative personnel. Some see

¹⁰ Work in America (1973) reports changes in attitudes and expectations towards work (pp. 10-11) and claims new values have had a noticeable effect on workers who espouse traditional views. "As evidence, it is claimed that where it used to be considered a sign of dedication and admirable ambition for a manager to be seen carrying home a full attache case, today it is seen only as compulsive behavior or evidence of 'workaholism' " (p. 40).

the value of the administrator in helping them carry out their jobs more effectively, but many look at administrators as the "hard-nosed accountant types who have never thought of themselves as academics but who have to make the academics (and the units they represent) toe the line financially if the institution is to maintain financial integrity" (Perkins, 1973, p.68).

The administrator is viewed as a consumer of "how to" books on topics such as planning, cost accounting, PPBS, control and theory for faculty staffing, financing of higher education, and space planning.¹¹ More attention has been given to the perception of the administrator by the faculty and to the objective problems of university management that he faces than to his career development, and job satisfaction. This paper attempts to begin to fill the research gap by presenting results of a study of university administrators' career attitudes and development needs.

¹¹ Some of these books are the Carnegie Commission's Effective Use of Resources and CED's Management and Financing of Colleges.

THE STUDY

Research Focus

The purpose of this study is to present an examination of a group of university administrators, to assess their feelings about their work, and to try to understand their expectations for the future and perceived development needs. Universities are beginning to recognize the importance of their administrators to their survival and progress and therefore need such data in order to develop programs to help administrators develop their potential, prepare for career advancement and expand within their current positions.

Specifically, as part of a larger study undertaken for the Vice President for Administration and Personnel at MIT, we attempt to find answers to the following questions:

- (1) What is the level of satisfaction with current job situations and organization climate?
- (2) What are the attitudes of employees about the career development opportunities, support and counseling they have had? That MIT could provide in the future?
- (3) What types of development programs would employees like to have offered?
- (4) Which MIT individuals or groups are seen as having primary responsibility for helping employees develop themselves and their careers?
- (5) Are there distinctly different career patterns and expectations within the university, perhaps modified by sex, age, family responsibility, type of job, or tenure?

In the larger study, these questions are asked of both administrative and non-administrative MIT employees. Although this paper focuses on administrative responses and results, some comparisons to the non-administrative group will be made in order to put these results into a broader context.

This study fits Coleman's category of "policy research."¹² In the analysis of results, we describe the current situation at MIT for administrative staff, the individuals' perceived needs and expectations for development, and we conclude with recommendations for use by MIT's Office of Personnel Development, the group charged with responsibility for employee development. We also include suggestions for research needed to support these recommendations as well as research that could be done to increase knowledge in the overall area of career development as it relates to university administrators.

The Administrative Sample

The administrative group that is the focus of this study is part of the sample in a larger study of development needs of MIT's non-academic employees. Appendix A contains a description of the larger study and its methodology. Appendix B is the questionnaire used in the study.

In selecting the administrative group for this study, we included the MIT payroll categories of "Administrative Staff," "Academic Administrative Staff," and "Exempt."¹³ All these categories encompass employees who are "administrators" in that they "manage or direct the execution, application or conduct of"(Webster) the university's affairs. These groups tend to have more supervisory responsibility

¹² Policy research is that "in which the research problem originates outside the discipline, in the world of action; and the research results are destined for the world of action, outside the discipline."(p.3). We hope to arrive at conclusions which describe the state of affairs (an aim of discipline research) and contribute to knowledge in the area of career development (also disciplinary), yet the main purpose is to learn about the problem in order to improve the current situation. One problem plaguing policy research is the difficulty in translating research conclusions into workable models for the world of action (Coleman, 1972). We deal with this problem in the last section of this paper.

¹³ In Policies and Procedures: A Guide for Faculty and Staff Members, September 1975, MIT, we find the three categories of administrators described:

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

The administrative staff includes individuals with professional or administrative responsibilities, appointed within the departments and offices of the central

than other employee groups and include the highest paid non-faculty employees at MIT. In order to give the reader an idea of who these people are and what kinds of jobs they hold, we present several typical job descriptions from Tech Talk, the MIT weekly administration-published newspaper (see Exhibit A).

At MIT, administrative staff members are involved in administrative work in the following areas of university management: business and operations, student services, financial administration, data processing, general and academic administration and public affairs and information.¹⁴ Typical job titles of this group include: assistant director, associate director, director, administrative officer, student financial aid officer, auditor, personnel officer/assistant, accountant, systems programmer, foreman/Physical Plant, administrative assistant, and buyer. The highest level of job included in this study is that of a director of a service center (e.g., data processing, graphic arts) or administrative function (e.g., planning, purchasing, admissions).

Institute administration. Typically each staff member has a title descriptive of his or her function or administrative responsibility.

ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

The academic administrative staff consists of individuals without other academic appointments, whose principal responsibilities involve administration in an academic department of the School. Appropriate descriptive titles, including those of Administrative Officer and Administrative Assistant, are assigned by the department to define responsibilities within the department.

EXEMPT

The exempt appointment applies to those positions involving duties and responsibilities which meet the requirements of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act for exemption from the overtime payment provisions of the Act. Responsibility for the supervision of others is a frequent, although not a mandatory, characteristic of these appointments. Typical occupational titles are Supervisor, Foreman, Engineering Assistant, Administrative Assistant and Technical Assistant. Exempt personnel fulfill important technical, administrative and managerial roles at the Institute. The appointments are distinguished from staff appointments on the basis of the scope of the responsibilities involved or the breadth of the formal training required.

¹⁴ These were the categories set up by staff classification committees that evaluated and ranked 510 administrative jobs at MIT.

Administrative Staff

Admin. Staff, Personnel Officer, Office of Personnel Services will have responsibility for policy interpretation, advice and assistance for all categories of non-academic employees in the School of Engineering. Will also assist with recruitment, interviewing, placement of applicants for all MIT positions. Bachelor's degree, or equivalent combination of education and experience, proven human relations skill, tact and ability to handle sensitive information required. Experience in personnel or counseling, particularly in the placement of scientific/technical personnel, as well as knowledge of union relations helpful. A75-53 (9/17).

Admin. Staff, Accounting Officer in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science to have overall responsibility for supervision and control of budgetary, payroll and accounting affairs of Department: verify and approve all payrolls; manage budgets; forecast expenditures; review cost aspects of grant and contract proposals and accounts; assist in budget preparation; perform other related duties as required. Accounting background and/or familiarity with Institute's payroll and accounting procedures, ability to handle detailed work requiring independent follow-up necessary. A75-52 (9/17).

Academic Administrative Staff

Acad. Staff, Administrative Officer, in Materials Science and Engineering to manage administration of undergraduate and graduate program, financial, personnel and business matters of the Department. Duties include assisting in preparation of general and funded research budgets; monitoring of budgets and expenditures; providing staff support to Department committees; overseeing operation of undergraduate and graduate programs; hiring and training of support staff; coordinating matters related to physical plant (space changes, renovations, etc.). Oversee all personnel, accounting, purchasing processes. Formal training in business administration, preferably at the MBA level, including experience in computerized accounting and management systems required. Familiarity with MIT procedures helpful. C75-34 (1/7/76).

Acad. Staff, Supervisor of Nurses, Inpatient Unit, Medical Dept. will be responsible for overall daily operation of inpatient facility through the planning, directing and provision of nursing care to meet patient needs; will be responsible for staffing, personnel management and administrative functions. Mass. licensed RN, preferably, with BS in Nursing, plus a minimum of 5 years nursing experience in progressively responsible positions involving supervisory and administrative functions required. C75-28 (10/1).

Exempt

Admin. Asst. (Exempt) in the Center for Policy Alternatives will perform administrative duties relating to accounting, payroll, personnel project administration, space and purchasing matters. Will work closely with Center administrators, project managers, students and academic and research staff personnel. Knowledge of bookkeeping or accounting procedures (preferably MIT experience) important. Good typing skill; must enjoy detailed work and a busy office. 40 hour week. E75-46 (12/17).

Accountant, Exempt, in Comptroller's Accounting Office will conduct internal cost audits of research contracts and grants and cash flow; prepare financial reports as required; implement policies to assure grant and contract fund expenditures comply with regulations; interact with Institute staff and outside agencies on matters relating to account activities, policies and procedures. BA in accounting, or equivalent combination of education and experience required. E75-38 (10/1).

The minimum salary for administrators eligible for the study was \$9,000 while the maximum was approximately \$34,000. However, as 95% of the administrators classified in the staff classification study (as of June 1975) fell into the \$11,000 to \$22,500 range, we would expect that few, if any, of our subjects are earning over \$25,000.

The target group, who received questionnaires in January-March of 1975, consists of 76 administrators: 49 males and 27 females. The ages of the subjects range from 23 to 63 with a median of 39 for the total group and 39 for males, 38 for females. The response rate of this group was 68% for males, 84% for females and a combined rate of 74%, which is considerably higher than the non-administrative response rate of 53%.¹⁵

Sixteen of the administrators reported that they supervised no other employees. About half of these had worked at MIT for 2 years or less. The majority supervised 2 or more employees. As evidenced by Table 1, the administrators do in fact have a much greater role in supervision than other employee groups at MIT.

Table 1¹⁶

SUPERVISION BY DIFFERENT EMPLOYEE GROUPS		
No. of employees supervised	Administrators (N=72*)	Non-administrators (N=180*)
0	22%	79%
1	15%	6%
2-5	32%	11%
6-10	18%	3%
11-25	13%	1%
Over 25	0%	0%

* These numbers differ from the study totals because of non-responses to the question on supervision.

¹⁵ The higher response from administrators could indicate that they are more interested in the types of questions posed in the study, that they are optimistic for some change in career development programs at MIT as a result of their participation in the study, that they are generally more disposed to answer questionnaires, or that they felt more demand pressure to respond. The researcher hand-delivered questionnaires and was known to a larger proportion of this group than any other.

¹⁶ A potential problem with the supervision data is that the question was phrased in a way that did not distinguish direct and indirect supervision. It seems unlikely that 13% actually have as many as 11 to 25 employees under their direct supervision.

Administrators also tend to have worked at MIT longer than other employee groups as can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2

MIT TENURE BY DIFFERENT EMPLOYEE GROUPS		
Tenure in years	Administrators (N=76)	Non-administrators (N=199)
1 year or less	9%	13%
1+ to 2 years	1%	15%
2+ to 5 years	18%	22%
5+ to 10 years	28%	26%
10+ years	44%	24%

Only a tenth of the administrators have worked at MIT for two years or less, as opposed to over a quarter of the others.

The family demographics of the administrative staff at MIT are as follows:

Table 3

MARITAL STATUS		
Marital Status	Male (N=49)	Female (N=27)
Single	16%	44%
Married	82%	37%
Divorced*	2%	11%
Other**	-	7%

* This category was responded to as "currently divorced." We suspect that there is more than one divorced male in the sample but that others have remarried and therefore checked the "married" response.

** Widowed and separated are included in this group.

Table 4

OFFSPRING		
Number of children	Male (N=41*)	Female (N=15*)
0	9%	67%
1	19%	7%
2	23%	13%
3-4	44%	13%
5 or more	5%	-

* These numbers only include married, divorced and widowed respondents. No single respondents reported having children.

Of the married, divorced and widowed ("other") group, the men tend to have more children. An overwhelming 2/3 of the ever-married women administrators have no children. And, as noted before, there is a much greater proportion of single women than single men in administrative jobs.

Other researchers have noted this tendency of women in higher positions to have fewer children and to marry less often than women in lower status, lower paid jobs such as clerical and factory assembly work. Margaret Hennig, in a study of 25 women who are presidents or vice-presidents of large business or financial firms, found that only one half had married, and that none of these has natural children, though some had step-children (reported in Sheehy, 1976). Less striking but similar to Hennig's findings are those of Bailyn (1973): she found that having 2 or more children significantly affects a woman's approach to career and reduces the proportion who are involved in full time work.

In summary, it seems that the typical MIT administrator is around 40, male and probably married with children. If the administrator is female, she is probably single. He or she supervises 2 or more employees and has probably worked at MIT for 5 or more years.

Organization Climate of MIT at the Time of the Study

The past 5 years have been transition years for the organization climate at MIT. The impetus for many changes came primarily from the Office of the Vice President, Administration and Personnel, who was responding to governmental pressure, to MIT employees' concerns and to the changing values of the work force in the nation. Three programs in this period have had an impact on the administrative population. These include promotions and upgrading of many women to staff positions, the Administrative Development Program (ADP), and the Hayes Classification Study.

To give a picture of the organization climate for MIT administrators, we will describe these programs, their goals and their perceived influence. There were also other programs and opportunities for administrators during this time period but the three we have chosen are the ones most important to the issue of career development in the terms of affecting the largest numbers of people.

Partially in response to affirmative action pressures,¹⁷ MIT began in 1971 consciously to review appointments and to try to promote from within. In other words, they began actively to seek women and minorities on the MIT staff who would move into higher positions, rather than using a well-developed network of male contacts to find a "good man for the job." "Serious search"¹⁸ procedures were instituted the same year. The MIT Personnel Office underwent reorganization during the fall and winter of 1972-73 and, as part of the reorganization, job posting was instituted so that all jobs were first advertised internally. Previously (and to some extent at present), an informal job information and hiring system was in effect, one that can be described as an "old boy" network. For example, an office director who expected to have an open position would phone several of his peers (usually male) and ask them what promising young men and women they could recommend for the opening. No real effort was made to seek out ambitious, talented "unknowns." Open job posting was aimed at replacing the informal system and widening the pool of individuals to be considered for job openings.

¹⁷ Affirmative action requirements also affected faculty hiring and promotion. However, in this paper, the focus is on administrators.

¹⁸ According to Policies and Procedures, evidence must be provided of a "broad and serious search for qualified candidates, including women and minority candidates" whenever the Appointments Subgroup of the Academic Council is recommending an appointment to a position on the faculty, administrative staff or sponsored research staff. The library staff also requires serious search procedures when making an appointment.

That the procedure succeeded in moving more women into higher level jobs is evident when we look at the internal promotions to staff positions at MIT for Fiscal Year 1974 (July 1, 1973 to June 30, 1974): an overwhelming majority of them were of female candidates (see Table 5).

Table 5

MIT INTERNAL PROMOTIONS 1973-74	
<u>Promotions</u>	<u>Percent female</u>
To administrative and academic staff	71% (N=15)
To exempt	81% (N=47)

Another influence on administrative careers and the organization climate at MIT is the Administrative Development Program (ADP) that began in February 1973. This program was designed for middle level administrators and was intended to

- help administrators attain their needs for personal and career development;
- develop and broaden management skills of administrators;
- help administrators develop a critical, questioning and philosophical attitude towards current practices;
- provide information about MIT and other universities; to base much of the curriculum on MIT experience;
- reach a large proportion of MIT administrators;
- bring together a heterogenous population of administrators to share their viewpoints (November 1972 Planning Group memorandum).

This program consists of 2 semesters of weekly half-day sessions which cover organizational behavior and MIT financial management in both theory and practice. The participants are self-selected; they apply and a MIT committee composed of both personnel and other administrators schedules them for a certain class.

So far, ADP I-VI have been completed, ADP VII is in its second semester and ADP VIII will begin in the fall of 1976. In a recent survey of ADP graduates performed by the Office of Personnel Development, 20% reported promotions either during the ADP term or within a year after graduation. The program does not claim or even try to prepare administrators for promotion directly, but the nature of the material covered and the group interaction experience do help prepare middle-level administrators to take on more responsibility. As of December 1975, 164 administrators had either completed or finished the first semester of ADP, and of the ADP participants, all but 5 are still at MIT.

The job classification study, often referred to as the Hayes study after the consultant organization that helped design the system, began as a result of concern for salary equity and a perceived need for a "more systematic basis for judging salary, not only in relation to the quality of individual performance, but to the perceived contribution of the position itself to the Institute." (MIT Report on the Salary Administration Program, 1975) Using peer group assessment, administrative jobs were categorized into six functional areas: business and operations, student services, financial administration, data processing, general and academic administration, and public affairs and information. In addition to salary equity itself, one of the goals of the classification study was

"to provide a means for satisfying both ourselves and those to whom we must account in the federal and state governments that we had a working program for assuring salary equity for all who work at MIT, including women and members of minority groups." (MIT Report on the Salary Administration Program, 1975)

The process involved in the Hayes study spanned one and a half years (December 1973 to spring 1975) and involved over 75 administrators (out of a population of over 500) in the analysis committees. The final classifications were presented to the MIT community through department heads in the late spring of 1975.

Although primarily a positive step in clarifying career ladders and equalizing salary discrepancies, the study received some negative reaction from parts of the administrative population.¹⁹ One group of ADP participants even designed and collected data on their own evaluation of the process. The study increased tension in administrative ranks, especially for the administrators who were in positions where their salary was at the top or above the range indicated for that level job. However, a realization of where they stood in relation to others may have spurred a number of administrators seriously to begin thinking about themselves and about their MIT careers.

In conclusion, it is fair to say that the climate for administrators in the past several years at MIT has been oriented toward development. There have been more internal promotions, women and minorities have been objects of attention and fairer treatment, ADP has provided a program that helps administrators upgrade their skills and understanding of the workings of the university and the Hayes study has clarified potential career paths at MIT. (In the past, it was often unclear whether or not a change in job was in fact a promotion.)

However, in addition to these effects, there tend to be more confusion about mobility prospects and more self-consciousness about careers than there were at the beginning of the '70's. In a sense, we can liken the effects of these programs to the confusion and delight a person has when exposed to a previously unexperienced pleasure (e.g., candy, sex, driving fast). They may want a lot, yet they must be aware both of their own limits and of those set by others that might create confusion and frustration.

¹⁹ When the research for the Individual Development Needs Survey was undertaken, administrators had just completed their 16 page questionnaires for the Hayes study and this may have affected their responses to this study. In fact, several subjects commented that they felt they were being "studied to death."

This section has described the group we are studying and the climate in which they were working when the study began. Below we investigate how they feel about their MIT careers, whether they expect any mobility at MIT, what their needs are for career development, and how content they are with their present jobs. We begin our data analysis by contrasting the administrative and non-administrative groups along these dimensions in order to clarify what is meant by administrative career orientation. We are aware, of course, that many different types of people are found in the administrative ranks, and that they have more than one approach to career. One of our objectives, therefore, is to develop a career typology that may be useful in understanding these different types and in planning development programs for them based on their differing needs.

Differences between Administrators and Non-administrators

When we contrast the administrators with the rest of the employee group, we find that they differ in the following areas:

- career orientation
- job satisfaction
- perceived development needs and past development activity.

Career Orientation

Table 6 shows some of the ways in which administrators differ from other employees in their career orientation. The table indicates that they are more inclined to view their jobs as part of a career, that they have participated in more career counseling and that they have a slight tendency to think they are doing more important work than others in a similar job are doing. In their responses to expectation of leaving MIT or to changing jobs within 5 years, administrators barely differ at all from non-administrators. The two groups

added comments to the questionnaire at the same rate, except that more women administrators commented than did any other group.

We interpret the administrators' greater use of career counseling as evidence of greater interest in planning and reevaluating their careers. The minimal difference between administrators and other employees in their mobility expectations might be explained by the more complex nature of, and longer training required by, administrative jobs. In other words, a career-oriented administrator probably would not plan to move often. The turnover in administrative ranks is lower than that in other jobs; therefore, the realistic administrator does not hold unrealistic expectations about moving within the organization.

It seems therefore that the administrators do have a somewhat stronger career orientation than other employees although this is not expressed in mobility expectations or in their involvement with the questionnaire as measured by added comments.

Table 6

POSSIBLE INDICATORS OF ADMINISTRATORS' CAREER ORIENTATION		
Variable	Administrators (N=76)	Others (N=188)
See job as part of career [†]	84%	52%
Have had career counseling at MIT	30%	19%
Expect to stay at MIT at least 5 years or more	40%*	34%*
Expect a different type job in 5 years	45%	53%
Importance of work when comparing self to others in similar job (much or somewhat more important)	73%	61%
Percentage who added comments at end of the questionnaire	44%**	42%**

[†] See Appendix C for a discussion of the group which sees their current job as the culmination of their career.

* There is not a large discrepancy here; however, twice as many non-administrators expect to leave within 3 years - 26% as opposed to 12% of the administrators.

** These figures hide 3 large sex differences: 61% of women commented and only 34% of male administrators commented. In the other group, the figures are 41% for males and 42% for females.

Job Satisfaction

In this study, job satisfaction was measured in two ways. First, we asked one direct question about satisfaction: "Are you satisfied with your present job or would you prefer a different type of job now?" On this direct measure of satisfaction, the administrators reported greater satisfaction: 88% of them reported satisfaction in contrast to only 68% of the non-administrative personnel. To get a detailed view of employee satisfaction, we also used as another satisfaction measure the discrepancy between actual amount of a particular characteristic present in the respondent's job and the amount desired. The job characteristics included were good relationships with colleagues, a good supervisor, opportunity for promotion and career advancement, opportunity to be creative, interaction with students, supervisory responsibility, time for home life and activities outside work, adequate salary to provide for (family and) self, a supportive organization climate, interesting work and challenging work.²⁰ Table 7 shows the difference between administrators and non-administrators on each of these items, ordered from lowest mean discrepancy score for administrators to highest. In other words, since we interpret a lower discrepancy score as greater satisfaction, the table orders the items from those with which the administrators are most satisfied to those with which they are least satisfied.

²⁰ Seashore and Taber (1975) define discrepancy scores as follows: "discrepancy scores derive measures of facet satisfaction by subtracting the reported degree of facet fulfillment ('is now') from the individual's report of how much (facet) he would like to have ('would like') or how much he thinks there should be ('should be'), or his rating of its importance. The logic of discrepancy scoring rests upon a conception that satisfaction is a result of fit between need and need fulfillment, or between fulfillment and one's estimate of the amount that would be equitable, or fit between the relative degree of fulfillment across a set of facets and the relative importance of these facets." (pp. 6-7)

Table 7
MEAN DISCREPANCY SCORES* FOR 11 JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristic	Administrators (N=76)	rank***	Others (N=188)	rank	Absolute Difference between ranks
**Interaction with students	.34	(1)	.53	(2)	1
Good relationships with colleagues	.38	(2)	.37	(1)	1
Interesting work	.45	(3)	1.03	(6)	3
Challenging work	.54	(4)	1.11	(7)	3
Opportunity to be creative	.59	(5)	1.14	(8)	3
**Time for home life	.62	(6)	.57	(3)	3
A good supervisor	.64	(7)	.64	(4)	3
**Supervisory responsibility	.69	(8)	1.23	(9)	1
Supportive organization climate	.93	(9)	.89	(5)	4
Adequate salary	.93	(10)	1.37	(10)	0
Promotion opportunity	1.37	(11)	1.55	(11)	0

* This score is the mean difference between reported amount of the characteristic actually present now in the job and the desired amount in an ideal situation. The characteristics were ranked on a 1-4 scale where 1 was 'absent' and 4 was 'present.' Discrepancy scores were derived by taking the absolute value of the difference between actual and ideal scores. In some cases, the discrepancy was in either direction: some individuals reported having too much of an item in their current job while others reported too little. In the case of interesting and challenging work, however, all respondents reported the discrepancy, if any, as wanting more than they actually had.

** The starred items are those for which absolute discrepancy scores do not indicate clearly the respondents' position. The three items which are reported ambiguously are interaction with students, time for home life and supervisory responsibility. The satisfaction measure used in this table includes both individuals who want more than they actually have of these items, and also a smaller number of individuals who would prefer less of the items than they currently have.

*** The column labeled "rank" shows the ordering of the items by greatest to least satisfaction.

We see in Table 7 that the largest differences between administrators and non-administrators lie in their ranking of the areas of interesting work, challenging work, the opportunity to be creative, a good supervisor and supportive organization climate. The administrators' greater satisfaction with the first 3 of these seems to reflect a different kind of job, one with more motivating factors.²¹ In contrast, the fact that administrators seem relatively less satisfied with good supervision and organizational climate indicates some of the organization difficulties of university administrators previously mentioned. Three areas received ambiguous responses. It is not clear how administrators and non-administrators' responses to the preferred amount of interaction with students, time for home life and supervisory responsibility should be interpreted.

Development Needs and Activities

Administrators differ from other employees on their most desired programs for development, though over 80% of all employees feel that the most important need is the opportunity for promotion to a higher level position. Administrators rate developing skills for their present job higher than non-administrators, and they also want to take on more responsibility in their current job. Moreover, administrators concentrate their rankings on fewer items, as is evident in Table 9, which shows the highest and lowest ranked items for both groups.

²¹In The Motivation to Work (1959) Herzberg delineates two types of factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The strong determiners of job satisfaction, or the 'motivators,' include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. The major dissatisfiers or 'hygiene' factors were company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. If these were not present, dissatisfaction was likely. However, their presence in a working situation did not insure positive job attitudes. On the other hand, the motivators were strongly related to positive job attitudes. (Chapter 6)

Table 8

IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY FOR OWN DEVELOPMENT*

Activity***	Administrators		Others		Absolute Difference Between Ranks
	N=52	Rank	N=24	Rank	
Opty. for hgr. level job	84%	1	84%	1	0
Supportive orgn. climate	79	2	76	2	0
Skills for present job	79	2	67	5	3
Finan assistance/educ.	65	3	75	3	0
Info. on MIT opportunities	60	4	74	4	0
Counseling on job problems	51	5	51	7	2
Career counseling	48	6	56	6	0
New responsibility in job	42	7	35	10	3
Lateral transfer	40	8	40	8	0
Rotation	27	9	29	11	2
Info. on outside jobs	26	10	35	10	0
Parttime work opty at MIT	18	11	36	9	2

* The items in this table have been ordered from most to least important by total administrative response.

** The percentages include all those who responded with either a 4 or 5 on a 1-5 scale of not at all important to very important.

*** Appendix B has a complete list of the items.

Table 9

DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY - RANKS BY GROUPS

	Administrators	Others
	% giving number 1 rank to item	
Highest ranked items		
Opty. for higher level job	41%	36%
Skills for present job	24	19
Supportive orgn. climate	17	11
Financial assistance/educ.	11	11
Lowest ranked items		
	% giving number 12 rank to item	
Info. on parttime jobs	35%	15
Info. on outside job opty.	27	17
Rotation program	17	13

The administrative group of course is not composed of a wide variety of occupations as is the non-administrative, which ranges from janitors and plumbers (whose highest ranks were opportunity for a higher level job and improving skills for present job) to secretaries (who ranked opportunity for a higher level job and financial assistance the highest) and research technicians (who prefer the opportunity to improve skills for their present job).

In the past, we see that 49% of administrators and 34% of the other group²² have participated in development programs and activities. When asked about their future plans to take advantage of development activities, 47% of the administrators reported that they planned to take part in development, as opposed to 28% of the non-administrators. In the secretarial/clerical group of women, however, 43% reported plans to take advantage of development. Another indication of interest in development is the use of career counseling; 30% of administrators as opposed to 19% of the others have had counseling.

Because men and women may have very different developmental needs, we also looked at sex differences in ranking the importance of development activities. These differences are reported in Table 10. As the table shows, women administrators tend to value organization climate more than male administrators. They also think financial assistance for educational programs is very important, more so than male administrators. It is tempting to speculate that this result stems from women having less education and therefore wanting to upgrade themselves through tuition assistance for courses and degree programs. However, when we look at the data, we see that 62% of women administrators have a B.A. degree or higher as compared with 55% of the male administrators. Women may feel that they must have more education in order to compete with men for higher level jobs.

²² Much of the attendance at development programs by this group is accounted for by the secretarial/clerical group, both male and female. Their participation rate is 47%; the others' rate is 20%.

Table 10

IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY FOR OWN DEVELOPMENT* COMPARING
MALE AND FEMALE RESPONSES

Activity***	Administrators			Others		
	Male(29)	F(23)	M/F difference	Male(20)	F(4)	M/F difference
Opty for hgr. lev. job	84%**	85%	1%	79%	88%	9%
Supportive orgn. climate	72	93	21	73	79	6
Skills for present job	75	85	10	72	63	9
Finan assistance/educ	58	78	20	68	82	14
Info. on MIT opportunities	56	67	11	69	79	10
Counseling on job problems	53	48	5	51	52	1
Career counseling	42	59	17	50	63	13
New responsibility in job	43	41	2	40	30	10
Lateral transfer	40	41	1	41	40	1
Rotation	30	22	8	26	33	7
Info. on outside jobs	32	15	17	30	39	9
Parttime work opty. at MIT	14	26	12	32	40	8

* The items in this table have been ordered from most to least important by total administrative response.

** The percentages include all those who responded with either a 4 or 5 on a 1-5 scale of not at all important to very important.

*** Appendix B has a complete list of the items.

In summary, we have seen that the administrators differ from the non-administrators in a number of ways. They are more satisfied in their jobs, which seem to provide them with interesting and challenging work. They are more likely to view their current job as part of a career than non-administrators. They also have participated more in development programs and career counseling in the past and expect to continue participation in the future. We can conclude that administrators are more career-oriented than non-administrators and, therefore, have very different development needs. Now we explore individual differences within the administrative group in order to identify appropriate organizational responses to the career needs of that group.

III

THE CAREER ORIENTATION OF ADMINISTRATORS

A Typology of Administrators

We have already mentioned that even a relatively homogeneous group will contain people with different attitudes toward their careers. In order to design development programs that will meet both individual and organizational needs, we must find out how the potential participants differ in the areas of motivation, needs and expectations. The needs for development depend on our knowing about the types of attitudes and behaviors on which individuals differ, particularly those that relate directly to career considerations.

Previous research indicates that different types of individuals have different learning styles (Kolb, 1971, McKenney and Keen, 1974), different approaches to their work (Schein, 1974) and different expectations about their careers. In studying development, however, we need to use concepts that deal with the individual's motivation to determine his or her own behavior. The social science concepts that come closest to explaining the kind of behaviors we are concerned with are listed in Table 11. These typologies are directly related to motivation for career-oriented behaviors. Another related concept is that of career anchors (Schein, 1974) previously mentioned on page 2. The anchor concept does not fit into a bi-polar typology chart, however; it is more complex and deals more with the value complex of individuals as they progress in their careers.

Table 11
 TYPOLOGIES OF SELF-DETERMINATION

<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Categories of Individuals</u>		<u>Relates to:</u>
Rotter	Internal locus of control	External locus of control	Control of reinforcements; general tendency of attribution of outcomes
DeCharms	Origin	Pawn	Personal causation; effecting change in the environment
White	Competence motivation		Source of behavior
McClelland	Achievement motivation		Success in entrepreneurial activities; relates to career patterns
Riesman	Inner directed	Other directed	Source of rewards

Although all of these typologies deal in some way with the motivation for self-determination in career, the two that come closest are those of Rotter and DeCharms. They both deal with the sources of behavior and of reward for individuals. Rotter describes a person with a belief in external control as perceiving a reinforcement following an action as a "result of luck, chance, fate or under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable." (Rotter, 1966, p. 1.) The individual who believes in internal control, in contrast, perceives the event as "contingent upon his own behavior or his own relatively permanent characteristics." (Rotter, 1966, p. 1.) He argues that people

differ consistently from one another in a general tendency to attribute outcomes to external or internal factors. Rotter and his followers' work has produced a series of studies that support

"the hypothesis that the individual who has a strong belief that he can control his own destiny is likely to (a) be more alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his future behavior; (b) take steps to improve his environmental condition; (c) place greater value on skill or achievement reinforcements and be generally more concerned with his ability, particularly his failures; and (d) be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him." (Rotter, 1966, p. 25).

The relevance to individual behavior in career development should be clear. In a similar way, DeCharms' "Pawn" feels pushed around by controls from the outside in contrast to an "Origin" who feels that he is himself in control, that he is controlled from within (DeCharms, p. 6). "The Pawn must depend on his mentor to recognize him but the Origin derives satisfaction from the feeling of personal causation, whether recognized by anyone else or not" (DeCharms, p. 326). He proposes that the behavior of a person who feels he is an Origin should be different from that of a person who feels he is a Pawn.

It seems clear from these descriptions that these two types of people would need and benefit from different types of career development programs. We have, therefore, tried to differentiate our sample into Proactive administrators, who play an active role in the development of their careers, and settled administrators, who want others to handle the problem of career for them and seem more content to accept whatever positions they find themselves in.

In applying these concepts to university administrators' approaches to their own career development, we do not have the same type of data that

Rotter, DeCharms and others used; instead we categorize our administrators into these two groups on the basis of their responses to questions that are only indirect indicators of the extent to which they are either internally controlled and rewarded and plan their own career development or look to outside sources to plan for them and to reward them.

On the basis of the questionnaire data, we try to differentiate those administrators who are actively planning their career movement and seeking career growth (Proactives) from those who are more content to remain in their present position and are not currently striving for career development (Settleds). This distinction should help us set guidelines for creating appropriate development programs.

Division of Administrators into Proactive and Settled Categories

The specific attributes used for assessing Proactivity consisted of

- acceptance of career responsibility, and
- participation in a degree program.

We chose these on the assumption that persons who take responsibility for their own career, both in words and in actions, are performing Origin-type activities. They would indicate that career development is important to them in questionnaire responses and that they have done and intend to do something about their own careers. Participation in a degree program is considered Proactive because it implies a time and financial commitment from the individual to increase his or her education. This is an activity that one must plan and do for oneself; at M.I.T., the individual is not sent by others to a degree program.

The attributes that indicate a Settled approach to career consist of

- a feeling that career development is for others, not for oneself
- a lack of accepting responsibility for managing one's own career
- a lack of interest in questions related to career development.

Questions on the topics of career advancement and development should elicit less response from individuals who are unconcerned with the topics. A disinterested individual also would tend to absolve himself or herself from the responsibility of worrying about or planning development or anticipating advancement by taking courses or participating in development programs. However, they still might believe career development is a 'good thing,' but just not for themselves. All of these attributes would point to individuals with a Settled approach to their careers.

Three questions in the questionnaire were deemed to provide evidence on the attributes of a Proactive or a Settled orientation:

"What should MIT be doing in the way of career counseling?"

"What does 'career development' mean to you?"

"Are you currently working towards a degree?"

The open-ended responses to the first two of these questions were classified by whether or not they indicated acceptance of responsibility for

planning and managing one's career.²³ Evidence for acceptance of responsibility stemmed from a respondent's use of "I," "my," or of action-oriented verbs. (For example, "opportunity to expand my personal growth . . .," "My ability to contribute," "an opportunity to share, to learn, to grow, to become more useful.") Such answers indicated that people felt in charge, in control of their career planning, and were therefore taken as indicative of a Proactive orientation.

Those considered to be in the Settled group, on the other hand, either failed to answer both of these questions or indicated in their answers that they thought career development was for others, but not for them. (For example: ". . . giving opportunities through counseling and other programs to those who are at an unfavorable advantage.") Evidence for a Settled approach also came from the use of passive statements, indicating they wanted someone else (or the institution) to do things related to career for them or to them, therefore sounding similar to a Pawn who, in DeCharms' typology,

²³The process of classification consisted of the following steps:

- 1) Copying open-ended question responses, data on education, desired and expected mobility, degree program participation, past development program and demographics on to a data sheet, one for each administrative questionnaire.
- 2) Sorting the sheets into response (N=64) and no response (N=12) groups based on the open-ended questions. At this point we tentatively labeled the no-response group as Settled.
- 3) Reading the open-ended responses and sorting into "acceptance" (N=49) and "not for me, but for others" (N=15) groups.
- 4) Classifying the "acceptance" group as Proactive.
- 5) Classifying the "not for me, but for others" group as Settled.
- 6) A final check was made using degree program participation as an indication of Proactivity. This changed 3 people from the no-response Settled group to the Proactive group.

This procedure resulted in 52 Proactives and 24 Settleds. Only intra-rater reliability was obtained. The sorting was done twice with a 4-month interval in between, and the placement into groups was identical.

feels that powerful others are controlling him. (For example: [MIT should be] "establishing realistic goals and provide guidance to attain those goals," "utilizing me to my true capabilities.")

64 respondents were categorized as Settled or Proactive on the basis of their responses to the two questions. However, there were 12 individuals who did not respond to either question. In order to classify them, we used the final question about participation in a degree program as an arbiter. Those who currently were enrolled in a degree program were typed as Proactives, the remainder as Settleds.

In our sample of 76 administrators then, 52 were classified as Proactive and 24 as Settled. The differences between these two groups will be explored in the following pages. We will begin by focusing attention on the sex differences in amount of Proactivity as this could have an impact on the interpretation of results.

Sex Differences in Proactivity

It is particularly interesting that an overwhelming majority of women administrators falls into the Proactive group. This finding violates the popular stereotype of women as both passive and less committed to work than men. In Table 12 we see that 85 percent of the women are Proactive compared with only 59 percent of the men. A variety of reasons might account for this difference. They range from a greater career awareness among women generated by the women's movement and affirmative action requirements to the possibility that women in university administration are unique and differ substantially in their career aspirations from women in other organizations

and from men within the university setting. In the following pages we explore several differences between male and female university administrators that may account for the greater Proactivity of women.

Table 12
FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY BY SEX

<u>Family responsibility</u> *	<u>Sex</u>	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
Total:	% Proactive 59% (N=49)	% Proactive 85% (N=27)
No responsibility	78% (N=9)	73% (N=15)
Low responsibility	40% (N=10)	100% (N=9)
Average responsibility	44% (N=16)	100% (N=2)
Maximum responsibility	79% (N=14)	100% (N=1)

* The definitions of the differing amounts of family responsibility are:

No responsibility	=	single
Low	"	= married; no children or no children under 19
Average	"	= school age children
Maximum	"	= preschool age children

In Table 4 (Offspring), we noted that the administrative men had more family responsibility in terms of number of children than the women did. Table 12 shows that more men, both Proactive and Settled, have family responsibility (82%) than women (44%). Since we see that people with less family responsibility are more Proactive, we need to look at the administrators,

controlling for family responsibility, to see if it really is sex that makes a difference in amount of Proactivity. In Table 12, we see that when we look at Proactivity in individuals with no family responsibility, the sex difference disappears. Men (78%) and women (73%) are equally likely to be Proactive.

However, for those administrators with family responsibility, there is an accentuation of the Proactivity effect -- women with all levels of family responsibility are more Proactive than men. All the married women (only 12 individuals), both those with and without children, are Proactive about their careers. For them, having a career is a serious commitment about which they are very concerned.

It is difficult to explain the large jump in Proactivity of the men with maximum family responsibility unless it is the result of an age factor. The men with preschoolers are younger than all others except the single group. To speculate any further, a deeper investigation of the relationship between family responsibility and career orientation would be needed.

In summary, we see that there is an interaction in the data among sex, family responsibility and Proactivity and, although the numbers are small, one should be alert to such interactions when planning development programs.

Correlates of Proactivity

Our purpose in this section is to understand the differences between the Proactives and the Settleds. In so doing, we will be alert to sex differences and will bring these in whenever relevant.

Table 13

Administrator Demographic Characteristics
by Proactive/Settled

	Proactive (N=52)	Settled (N=24)
Age: range	25 - 63	23 - 63
median	37	49
Tenure: median *	8 years	8 years
Job type: ** exempt	23%	42%
administrative	78%	58%

* For Proactive females, median tenure is 5.5 years. For Proactive males it is 10 years.

** Both these job types are administrative. See page 19 for explanation.

In Table 13, we see that the Proactive group tends to be younger and to hold administrative staff positions in greater proportion than the Settleds, who are older and tend to have a fairly even distribution between exempt and administrative staff positions. The groups' median tenure is identical at 8 years, though it should be stated that the Proactive women have spent fewer years at MIT than any of the other groups.

Proactives and Settleds also differ in their development activities, as is evident in Table 14. We see differences between Proactives and Settleds in their desire to take advantage of future development programs and in their past participation in more than one program. Almost by definition

Table 14

Development History and Activities

	<u>Proactive</u>	<u>Settled</u>
Percentage of <u>Ss</u> who have:		
Past participation in development programs ²⁴ (N=38)	50% (N=26)	50%* (N=12)
Planned future participation (N=36)	54%** (N=28)	33% (N=8)
Taken more than one program (N=13)	23%** (N=12)	5%* (N=1)

* Only males fall into this category.

** In both instances, females account for a greater proportion of the response.²⁵

the Proactives appear to be planning ahead and taking control of their careers to a greater extent than the Settled group. The Proactive women again stand out; 65 percent of them say they are planning to participate in development programs in the future.

²⁴ Following are figures for the various programs that were attended by administrators. The figures are numbers, not percentages.

	<u>Proactive</u>			<u>Settled</u>		
	<u>M (29)</u>	<u>F (23)</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>M (20)</u>	<u>F (4)</u>	<u>Total</u>
ADP	6	8	14	2	0	2
Supervisory training	4	3	7	6	0	6
Tuition Assistance	7	4	11	5	0	5
Human processes workshop	0	4	4	0	0	0
Skills training	2	2	4	0	0	0
Other programs	3	3	6	1	0	1

²⁵ An explanation for this greater attendance at development programs may be that women see programs as their only chance to get ahead. While men in the organization have mentors, women rarely do. No one has an eye on developing them for a particular job, so they have to do it themselves. (Lombardi, 1976, Sheehy, 1976)

Table 15 which compares the groups on job expectations and mobility shows that the groups differ primarily in their views of the future. More than twice as many Proactives as Settleds want a different job in 5 years, and more often expect, if at MIT, actually to have it. Further, Tables 15a and 15b show that this difference persists even when age and tenure are controlled. There does, however, seem to be an interaction effect here. Neither age nor tenure makes any difference in desire for a different job among Settled administrators, whereas it does among the Proactives. It is the younger, shorter tenure Proactive individual who is most likely to want to move. Next most likely to want to move is the older Proactive group, and the Settled group comes last.

Table 15 also shows that 21 percent of Proactives and 17 percent of Settleds plan to leave MIT within 5 years. Since more of the Settleds are older, we expect that for many of them leaving MIT implies retirement. If that is the case, there is a wider gap between the groups in the expectation of leaving than the numbers would indicate. Therefore, Proactive administrators, particularly the younger ones, both tend to desire different jobs in 5 years and expect to leave MIT within 5 years in greater proportion than do Settled administrators. This is true even though there is no difference between the Proactive and Settled groups in general job satisfaction on any of the components of satisfaction.

Table 15

Job Expectations and Expected Mobility		
	<u>Proactive (N=52)</u>	<u>Settled (N=24)</u>
Prefer different job <u>now</u>	13%	13%
<u>Expect</u> different type of job in 5 years if at MIT	23%	13
<u>Want</u> different type of job in 5 years	50%	21%
Expect to leave MIT within 5 years	21%	17%
See current job as part of career	81%	71%

Table 15a

Percentage Wanting Different Job in 5 Years		
<u>Age</u>	<u>Proactive</u>	<u>Settled</u>
Above median	48% (25)	23% (13)
At median (37)	0 (3)	0 (2) median 49
Below median	58% (24)	22% (9)

Table 15b

Percentage Wanting Different Job in 5 Years		
<u>Tenure</u>	<u>Proactive</u>	<u>Settled</u>
Above median	42% (24)	18% (11)
At median (8 years for both groups)	0	100% (1)
Below median	60% (25) *	18% (11) *

* The totals do not equal 52 and 24 as two individuals did not report tenure.

In summary, we can say that a Proactive administrator has concern for his or her future either within or outside MIT and converts this concern into action more than does the Settled employee. The Proactive women are even more active and involved in development than the men, although their responses about future jobs contained fewer references to specific position than did the men's responses.²⁶

²⁶In general the women's comments were in line with wanting expansion and advancement. A sample of answers from them includes: "with more responsibility," "higher level, more administrative responsibility," "rotation, more responsibility, promotion," "significantly more responsibility," "more management oriented," "higher pay, interesting job I could contribute more to and learn more from." Two women named specific areas in which they would like to work: "AO job, mostly personnel," and "personnel development." On the other hand, when men reported wanting a job change in the future, they were more likely to list a specific position or area: "administrator," "advancement, at least my supervisor's position," "legal counsel in government or corporation," "buyer," "research associate or director of government liaison in energy lab," "director of research or managerial industrial position," "VP operations at a bank or Institute Secretary," "consultant," and "purchasing." It would be interesting to explore the reasons underlying the differences in specificity of response.

CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Results

We have found that administrators differ from other MIT employees by being more career oriented, by having longer tenure and by being more interested and challenged by their work. Within the administrative group, we isolated two types: the Proactives and the Settleds. These two groups have different approaches to career mobility and development activities, with the Proactives more likely to want and expect to move and to have taken more advantage of development programs than the Settleds. The Settled group seems to fit some of the characteristics of individuals described by Schein as having the career anchor of security.²⁷ We found also that an administrator's sex affects her or his career orientation. The Proactive women administrators have taken more development programs, are more impatient to move and yet are more satisfied with their salaries.

With all these differences, it would be difficult to provide a unified conclusion about the perfect approach to development for administrators. A diversified approach, one which takes into account the varying needs, backgrounds, experience, expectations and values, is indicated. We must approach development from the point of view of both the individual and

²⁷ A career anchor is a "syndrome of self-perceived talents, values and motives which organize and give stability to career-oriented decisions." The security anchor implies that a person is motivated to stabilize his or her career situation, even to the extent of subordinating personal desires to organization demands. They normally will rise only to a certain level within an organization and the moves they do make will be made in order to find a more secure position, not more challenge. (Van Maanen and Schein, 1975, 48-52)

the organization²⁸ in order to avoid the widespread mistake of assuming individual needs mesh with organization goals.

MIT Career Development and Policy Issues

MIT is moving from a system in which the organization controls the individual's career (Van Maanen and Schein discuss unobtrusive and indirect forms of control through promotion and recruitment, p.6) to one in which individuals have more input into controlling their own careers. Now that there are levels and grades established in the administrative staff ranks, individuals are better able to aspire to particular jobs and levels. This clarification of career paths and more active involvement of the individual in his or her own career development is becoming widespread in a variety of innovative organizations, such as TRW, Proctor and Gamble, Olin Corporation, the University of Cincinnati and Digital Equipment Corporation. The interest also is evident in the number of newly created consulting firms working with career development issues and in the packages for assessment and career planning which are proliferating.

Van Maanen and Schein define career development as implying "a life long process of working out a synthesis between individual interests and the opportunities (or limitations) present in the external work-related environment such that both individual and environmental objectives are fulfilled" (p. 8). For MIT, the implications of this definition are policy-

²⁸In their integrative model of career development, Van Maanen and Schein see career development as a joint responsibility. Career development must relate the key environmental, cultural and individual variables across time. Organizational and institutional outcomes, performance and productivity must be considered in any model of development. But also vital for consideration are the individual careers and personal satisfaction and growth. (Van Maanen and Schein, 1975, 12-14)

related. It is necessary for MIT authorities first to commit themselves to career development for employees (which they have done) and secondly to decide what will take precedence when a particular conflict arises between organization and individual goals.

Van Maanen and Schein present three primary frameworks for considering career development: personal, organizational and societal and propose that there is joint responsibility shared among the three. In the recommendations of this study, we can only focus on organizational responsibility for creating programs that enable people to grow and remain involved in their work.²⁹ We must leave it up to the individual to integrate the other parts of his or her life with the MIT career part of it. Many researchers are working on the issues of accommodation and integration, but their findings are not considered here.

A necessary starting point in working on career development for individuals is to assess where they are and where they hope to go in their development. It is important in this process for the individual to consider an interactive model of self-development, family-related and work-oriented issues, for it is only by integration of the needs and constraints in all three areas that people can plan a viable development approach. The key to productive career development programs from the organization point of view is to enable a matching of internal career needs of the individual with external career opportunities that the organization and society may offer.

²⁹ This paper assumes that it is normal, healthful and important for individuals to be involved in their work. Otherwise career development is not important.

It is in this context that we present recommendations for consideration of policy questions and suggestions for the establishment of a coordinated organization-wide approach to career development.

Both in research and in designing a development program, it is necessary for the researcher and intervenor to be aware of a variety of policy issues. For MIT, the policy issues include the following:

- 1) To what extent does the university support career development and what type of cost-benefit analysis does it use in assessing the effectiveness of the program? Where does the commitment lie in the organization priorities (i.e., if the budgets are cut, when does growth for employees get dropped as an institutional commitment)?
- 2) Is there a commitment to help individuals with self-assessment and growth even if it means they may leave the organization? Is individual growth a value supported by the organization?
- 3) Does the university want to support both Proactive and Settled types? If yes, should the organization provide different types of programs for the two groups? If no, which group does it prefer to retain as employees and what approach should be taken with the others?
- 4) Are there Proactives and Settleds in occupational groups other than the administrative one? What generalizations can be made from our results to help with their career issues?
- 5) Are there different types of jobs in the university that require people with differing career anchors? If so, how can the organization direct people towards appropriate positions?
- 6) What rewards are most appropriate for individual job holders? Can the organization afford them? Can the organization afford to train supervisors to administer new and different types of rewards?³⁰
- 7) Whose role is it to help individuals with career issues?
- 8) How can the organization make better use of people after they have participated in development programs?

There are various implications for action dependent upon how the above questions are answered. These issues are not unique to MIT; they would need to be asked and answered by any organization that seriously wanted to implement a comprehensive career development program. In presenting the following

³⁰ Hughes (1975) proposes that different groups of employees may prefer different types of rewards, thus necessitating different benefit programs to a greater extent than presently exist.

recommendations, we assume that MIT wants to have a career development program that will benefit both the individual and MIT, not be prohibitively expensive, and be integrated with the current management system of the organization.

Recommendations

The first step in a career development program is to familiarize the MIT population with the concept of career development and planning.³¹ One indication that this would be accepted is the enthusiasm shown by ADP participants in their sessions on career development.

Provision then needs to be made for assessment of individuals' values, talents and abilities.

Next, there must be an effort to define the organization's commitment to support individuals in their career development and the budget and staff constraints of the program. It is also important that employees become aware of the limited opportunities for upward mobility at MIT.

The organization must realize that different rewards are valued differently by different individuals. Where one person might value more time with family, another might want only more money and a third might prefer

³¹ Looking ahead in terms of a career perspective may be a real source of inspiration for some people but a cause for discomfort and despair for others. It is therefore necessary to approach the area cautiously and assess feelings before establishing a program for everyone. Hughes and Flowers (1973) report that value systems differ, often by employee group. The employees with existential values will be the most comfortable with an exploration of their values and career plans. Other groups, such as those with conformist values, probably would feel threatened and would prefer a system in which their careers were determined for them by the organization.

more autonomy in doing his or her job. Supervisors need to be trained to distribute rewards that are seen as equitable and that are designed to meet individual needs. They also need training to be able to participate in their own and their employees' career planning process.

Since 50 percent of the Proactives and 20 percent of the Settleds want a different job in 5 years, MIT can explore options that would provide different job experiences as a development tool. The options include rotation, trial internships in new jobs, temporary assignments, exchanges with other institutions, job expansion, reorganization of the jobs and the structure of departments, adding more academic components to the jobs (e.g., advising students, serving on Institute-wide committees), and involving employees in the training of other employees.

Creating a systematic approach to better use individuals who have completed development programs is necessary in a comprehensive program. For example, they can be listed as career advisors, potential committee members, task force members, assistant trainers and as available for promotions.

The organization needs to develop a system for helping people who are failing in their own eyes in the accomplishment of renewed self-confidence and then the consideration of career objectives. MIT also needs to be concerned with those individuals who are failures in the eyes of the organization (Goode, 1967, Cuddihy, 1974).

Other components of a career development system include the preparation of guidelines on out-placement for individuals who decide they want to leave the organization, the inclusion of Proactive administrators in the design phase of programs for themselves, a focus on experiential and active learning for the Proactive group in particular, and the investigation of possibilities for using longer service employees in mentors' roles. Training to become mentors may revitalize some of the Settled group.

Further Research

In order to fully design a system-wide approach to career development, we need answers to both the previously outlined policy questions and to the following research questions. What is the incidence of mid-career or mid-life crisis in Settleds and Proactives? Does it occur in different proportions in the two groups? Do they handle it differently? This information would be useful to know in order to help prepare younger administrators to deal with issues that often occur around mid-life (Sheehy, 1976).

What makes people stay at MIT? Can we assume that low dissatisfaction will keep employees at MIT? If we discover what keeps employees at MIT, and if the organization decides that it favors low turnover, it might be possible to redesign the reward system using satisfiers and motivators discovered to be critical.

Is development primarily a concern and activity of women as is partially indicated by the results of this study? Is the university unique in having Proactive women? What organizational effects are related to women's interest in development?

How much control do individuals perceive they have over their career development? This research, based on that of Rotter and deCharms, might be useful in making decisions on programs to help individuals gain more control over their careers and also to clarify which aspects they can and cannot control.

How much can individuals be expected to change? How much of their perception of being "locked in" is accurate?

What is perceived by participants as the value of development programs? How has participation affected their personal growth and career?

In conclusion, we have investigated a group of employees about whom there is little empirical knowledge. These results are important because the university administrator's job and role in the university are becoming more influential. We have identified two distinct career orientations of administrators, Proactive and Settled, and have investigated some of their differences. We have also presented some of the policy issues and recommendations for career development programs that follow from these results as well as some research questions that need to be explored in order to further these goals.

Appendix A: Methodology of the Individual Development Needs Survey

Questionnaire development for the IDNS began in the summer of 1974. The questionnaire was pre-tested on a sample of MIT employees holding both secretarial and administrative positions. It was reviewed for clarity, length and internal consistency by these groups. The three parts of the instrument include Part I: preferences and rankings of type of development program desired, Part II: demographic information (age, sex, education, family information, etc.), job history at MIT, expectations for future career and job satisfaction, and Part III: assignment of responsibility for career development and attitudes about current job situation in relation to development and satisfaction.

The 10 percent sample of MIT employees was chosen from an alphabetized list, stratified by payroll categories (administrative staff, academic staff, exempt, DSR staff, biweekly and hourly) and sex. The selection began with a random number and took every tenth name on the list. As the list was generated in July of 1974, and subjects received the questionnaires in January and February of 1975, it was assumed that the employees in the sample had worked at MIT for at least six months. This period was thought to be long enough for the employee to have developed attitudes about the university work environment, about his or her particular job and about the potential for a career at MIT.

Questionnaire Distribution

After the questionnaire had been approved by the Committee on the Use of Humans as Experimental Subjects, a total of 470 questionnaires was distributed in January and February of 1975. Most of the questionnaires were

hand delivered as it was anticipated that some subjects might have left MIT and that the MIT mail system would not so notify the researcher. We also anticipated some office changes which could be discovered immediately with hand delivery. Both of these situations did occur. When a subject was found to have left MIT, a substitute subject was chosen by taking the next name on the list. 19 percent of the final sample consisted of replacement subjects. The hourly maintenance workers (about 60 people), who work on three shifts and do not have specific office locations, received their questionnaires through internal mail. Other employees who were out of their offices at the time of delivery or at remote locations (Laboratory for Nuclear Science, Middletown; Lincoln Laboratory; Joint Center for Urban Studies, etc.) also received questionnaires by mail.

It was expected that hand delivery would result in a high response rate. The overall response was 58 percent, with 55 percent for males (N=147) and 61 percent for females (N=125). Approximately 30 subjects returned blank questionnaires or phoned the researcher to say they were not completing the questionnaire. The reasons for non-participation seemed to fall into two main categories. Some thought they were unqualified as subjects (e.g., those who were previously on a non-academic payroll but currently on an academic one), and others did not want to participate for personal reasons e.g., close to retirement, sick, don't like questionnaires). On the whole, however, most employees in the sample seemed pleased to be asked to participate and thought career development was an important issue. A few were skeptical that the questionnaire results would lead to any substantive changes in MIT's approach to employees and their careers.

Job Categories Sampled and Response Rates

The sample included six payroll categories: academic administrative staff, administrative staff, Division of Sponsored Research staff (those whose salaries come out of research grants), exempt, biweekly (mostly secretarial and clerical workers) and hourly employees. The sample was drawn from the entire employee population at MIT with the exception of the academic categories (professor, associate professor, assistant professor, lecturer, instructor and visiting professors) and the top administration (vice presidents, provost, chancellor and president). Examples of jobs in the sampled categories are shown below.

<u>Payroll Category</u>	<u>Representative Jobs</u>
Academic administrative staff	administrative officer ILO officer technical instructor assistant dean/director librarian
Administrative staff	personnel officer assistant director supervisor-Physical Plant programmer accountant
Exempt	supervisor administrative assistant foreman/assistant foreman buyer keypunch supervisor
Biweekly	secretary administrative assistant clerk technical assistant telephone operator computer operator

DSR staff	project manager
	research scientist
	research staff
	nurse
	technical
	accounting officer (for project)
Hourly	janitor/custodian
	handyman
	patrolman
	electrician
	carpenter

The different groups responded in differing rates to the questionnaire.

The response rates by job category are shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Population, Sample and Response Rate by Job Type³²

	<u>Population</u>		<u>Sample</u>		<u>Responding</u>		<u>Response Rate</u>	
	male	fem.	male	fem.	male	fem.	male	fem.
Administrative staff	521	222	53	21	38	16	70%	81%
Exempt	204	128	20	12	11	11	55	92
DSR staff	595	150	58	14	30	8	52	57
Biweekly	288	1373	28	139	15	80	54	58
Hourly	1063	196	106	19	54	9	51	47
Totals	2671	2069	265	205	147	125	55	61
Combined totals	4740		470		272		58%	

Characteristics of the Sample

Age Range: 18-71

Median age: 37

Tenure range: 1-37 years

Percent married: 65%

Male: 80%

Female: 47%

SPSS was used for the major portion of the data analysis although content analysis was performed on the open-ended questions.

³²The high response rate from the exempt and administrative females might be attributed to their greater concern with their development. It also might be a result of women being more verbal and more willing to respond to questionnaires. The lower rate from both sexes in the hourly group is probably a result of the method of delivery and the literacy level. Several of the questionnaires received from that group were incorrectly completed and others were illegible because of writing that was difficult to read and misspellings. The DSR group probably has less interest in a career at MIT and the questionnaire content than the others, as many of them are research-oriented Ph.D.'s who are only temporarily at MIT. They would tend to look at their profession as a reference group in a way similar to faculty who expect to move from institution to institution in a successful career.

APPENDIX B
THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS SURVEY

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Individual Development Needs Survey

This questionnaire is in three parts. The first part of the questionnaire deals with a number of programs and information that MIT could or does provide for employees. The second part concerns you--how long you have worked at MIT and other questions that will help us analyze the data by looking at different groups of people. The last section gives you an opportunity to express some of your own ideas about MIT's role in your development and asks about your participation in programs that MIT already supports. We appreciate your cooperation in helping us collect information that we can use in planning development programs for MIT people.

PART I

- 1 The following list includes some vehicles for individual development currently or potentially available at MIT. We are interested to know how you feel about these for your own development. Please go through the list and circle the number that indicates how important each item is to you.

For example: If you think a career development counseling program is quite important to you, you might rate it as follows:

Counseling on career development	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	Very important	5
.....							

	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	Very important	5	
i. Job rotation program within MIT	1	2	3	4	5	(4)		
ii. Possibilities for lateral transfer	1	2	3	4	5	(5)		
iii. Opportunity to learn skills to do present job more competently	1	2	3	4	5	(6)		
iv. Opportunity to take on additional or new responsibilities in present job without salary increase or promotion	1	2	3	4	5	(7)		
v. Supportive organization climate for growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	(8)		
vi. Opportunity to advance to a higher level job	1	2	3	4	5	(9)		
vii. Information about job opportunities at MIT	1	2	3	4	5	(10)		
viii. Information about part-time job opportunities at MIT	1	2	3	4	5	(11)		
ix. Information about job opportunities outside MIT	1	2	3	4	5	(12)		
x. Financial assistance for educational programs	1	2	3	4	5	(13)		
xi. Counseling on career development	1	2	3	4	5	(14)		
xii. Counseling on current job and/or supervisor problems	1	2	3	4	5	(15)		

2. Now please consider the same list of items in relation to each other. Pick out the two that you consider most crucial to your own development and mark 1 for the most important and 2 for the second most important in the column labeled rankings. Then, use the numbers 11 and 12 to rank the least important items with 12 indicating the one that is least important of all to your own development.

RANKINGS

- | | | |
|-------------|---|--------|
| _____ i. | Job rotation program within MIT | (16) |
| _____ ii. | Possibilities for lateral transfer | (17) |
| _____ iii. | Opportunity to learn skills to do present job more competently | (18) |
| _____ iv. | Opportunity to take on additional or new responsibilities in present job without salary increase or promotion | (19) |
| _____ v. | Supportive organization climate for growth and development | (20) |
| _____ vi. | Opportunity to advance to a higher level job | (21) |
| _____ vii. | Information about job opportunities at MIT | (22) |
| _____ viii. | Information about part-time job opportunities at MIT | (23) |
| _____ ix. | Information about job opportunities outside MIT | (24) |
| _____ x. | Financial assistance for educational programs | (25) |
| _____ xi. | Counseling on career development | (26) |
| _____ xii. | Counseling on current job and/or supervisor problems | (27) |
| | | (28-9) |
| | | (30-1) |

PART II Background Information. This information is to be used only for data analysis by groups; no individuals will be identified in reports.

- | | | |
|--|-------------------------|---------|
| 1. Sex (1)_____female | (2)_____male | (32) |
| 2. Age: In what year were you born?_____ | | (33-4) |
| 3. Marital Status: (1)_____single | | (35) |
| (2)_____married | | |
| (3)_____divorced | | |
| (4)_____other (please specify)_____ | | |
| 4. Number of children_____ | Their ages: _____oldest | (36-40) |
| | _____youngest | |
| | others_____ | |

5. What proportion of financial support do you provide for your immediate family? (41)

_____ (1) less than 50% _____ (4) 76-99%
 _____ (2) about 50% _____ (5) 100%
 _____ (3) 51-75%

Job History at MIT

6. What is the total number of years you have worked at MIT? _____ (42-3)

7. Is your current job your first job at MIT? _____(1)yes (44)
 _____(2)no

If no, how many different jobs have you held at MIT? _____ (45-6)
(Please clarify your answer here if necessary)

8. What is your present job? (47-8)

9. Payroll classification:
 (1) Academic administrative staff (e.g. Admin. Officer, medical, etc.) (49-50)

____ (1) Academic administrative staff (e.g. Admin. Officer, medical, etc.)
____ (2) Administrative staff
____ (3) Biweekly

(4) _____ technical
(5) _____ administrative

_____ Exempt (6) _____ technical
(7) _____ administrative

____ (8) Hourly
____ (9) Library staff
____ (10) Other (please specify) _____

- [illegible]

If yes, how many hours per week do you work? _____ (52-3)

11. How many years have you worked at your present job? (54-5)

12. Were you hired for a limited period of time in this job? (For example, a DSR staff member might be hired until a particular research grant runs out.) (56)

_____ (1) yes
_____ (2) no

If yes, when will the job finish (approximately)? _____ (57)

Would you like to stay at MIT after this job is over? (58)

_____ (1) yes
_____ (2) no
_____ (3) don't know

13. Do you have more than one supervisor? (59)

_____ (1) yes
 _____ (2) no

If yes, how many? _____ (60)

How many people do you actually feel make work demands of you? _____ (61)

14. How many people do you supervise? (62-3)

Job Expectations and Satisfaction

15. How long do you probably expect to continue working at MIT? (64)
 _____ (1) 1 year or less
 _____ (2) 1-2 years more
 _____ (3) 3-5 years more
 _____ (4) at least 5 years, and maybe more
 _____ (5) don't know
16. If you were still at MIT in 5 years, what type of job do you think you would have? (65)
 _____ (1) present or similar job
 _____ (2) a different type of job (please specify) _____
17. What type of job would you most like to have 5 years from now? (It is ok to include jobs not available at MIT.) (66)
 _____ (1) present or similar job
 _____ (2) a different type of job (please specify) _____
18. What factors would be most likely to cause you to leave MIT? (For example, "end of project," "better job elsewhere," "more pay," "husband or wife moving to another area," etc.) (67)
19. Are you satisfied with your present job or would you prefer a different type of job now? (68)
 _____ (1) satisfied
 _____ (2) prefer a different type of job (Is this different type of job available at MIT?) _____ (1)yes (69)
 _____ (2)no
20. Current level of education (check the highest level completed): (70)
 _____ (1) eighth grade or less
 _____ (2) some high school
 _____ (3) graduated from high school
 _____ (4) technical school (please specify) _____
 _____ (5) some college
 _____ (6) received A.A. degree
 _____ (7) received bachelor's degree
 _____ (8) received master's degree
 _____ (9) received doctorate
21. How much education is actually required for you to do your present job well? (71)
 _____ (1) less than I have
 _____ (2) the same amount as I have
 _____ (3) more than I have
22. Are you currently working towards a degree? _____ (1)yes (72)
 _____ (2)no
 If yes, what degree? _____ (73)
 When do you expect to complete it? _____ (74)

Card 2,
Q number
1,2,3

PART III

1. Below is a list of individuals and groups who might share responsibility for your career development. How much responsibility do you think each should take for your development? (Please circle the appropriate number.)

RANKINGS		No responsibility at all			Great deal of responsibility		
_____	i. Own supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	(4)
_____	ii. Own department, lab or office	1	2	3	4	5	(5)
_____	iii. Office of Personnel Development	1	2	3	4	5	(6)
_____	iv. Office of Personnel Services (personnel officers, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	(7)
_____	v. MIT in general	1	2	3	4	5	(8)
_____	vi. Myself	1	2	3	4	5	(9)
_____	vii. Others (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5	(10)

NOW, please GO BACK and rank the person or group which should take the most responsibility for your development with a 1 in the RANKINGS column and rank the second most responsible person or group with a 2. (11)

2. The following list shows a number of things a supervisor can do to help in the development of employees. In the first column (Actual), please indicate how much your current supervisor(s) is involved in the areas listed by circling the appropriate number. Then, in the second column (Ideal), indicate how much you think a supervisor should be involved in each area if it were an ideal situation for you.

	Supervisor Involvement									
	ACTUAL					IDEAL				
	Not much at all					A great deal				
i. Help employee expand current job	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5 (12-13)
ii. Conduct regular career planning and performance evaluation discussions	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5 (14-15)
iii. Encourage employee to take advantage of training and educational opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5 (16-17)
iv. Encourage employee to explore transfer options	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5 (18-19)
v. Challenge and push employee by assigning more responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5 (20-21)

3. How do you see your current job?

- _____ (1) As a job only, not necessarily related to my career (22)
 _____ (2) As a part of my career
 _____ (3) As the culmination of my career
 _____ (4) Other (please specify) _____

Comments:

4. Below is a list of characteristics of a job. In the first column (Actual), please indicate the extent to which these characteristics are present in your current job by circling a number. In the second column (Ideal), please indicate how much you would like these characteristics to be present in an ideal job situation for you.

RANKINGS		ACTUAL				IDEAL			
		Absent	Present			Absent	Present		
i. _____	Good relationships with colleagues	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (23-4)
ii. _____	A good supervisor	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (25-6)
iii. _____	Opportunity for promotion and career advancement	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (27-8)
iv. _____	Opportunity to be creative	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (29-30)
v. _____	Interaction with students	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (31-2)
vi. _____	Supervisory responsibility	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (33-4)
vii. _____	Time for home life and activities outside work	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (35-6)
viii. _____	Adequate salary to provide for (family and) self	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (37-8)
ix. _____	A supportive organization climate	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (39-40)
x. _____	Interesting work	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (41-2)
xi. _____	Challenging work	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (43-4)
xii. _____	Other (please specify)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4 (45-6)

NOW, please go back and number the three most important characteristics of a job for you. Put a 1 in the RANKINGS column in front of the most important, a 2 next to the second most important and a 3 next to the third most important characteristic. (47-9)

5. How important is the working part of your life to you when you compare yourself with people doing a similar job? (50)
- ____ (1) much more important to me
 ____ (2) somewhat more important to me
 ____ (3) about the same
 ____ (4) a little less important to me
 ____ (5) much less important to me
6. How important is the working part of your life to you now as compared to when you first started working? (51)
- ____ (1) much more important to me now
 ____ (2) somewhat more important to me now
 ____ (3) about the same
 ____ (4) a little less important to me now
 ____ (5) much less important to me now
7. Have you received any career counseling at MIT? ____ (1)yes ____ (2)no (52)
- If yes, what was the role of the person(s) who counseled you? (For example, "my boss," "co-worker," "personnel officer," etc.) (53)
8. What should MIT be doing in the way of career counseling? (54)
9. Have you participated in any programs for development at MIT? ____ (1)yes ____ (2)no (55)
- If yes, which ones? ____ (1) clerical and technical skills training, GED, English as a second language (56)
 ____ (2) ADP
 ____ (3) supervisory workshops
 ____ (4) human processes workshop (Spring '74)
 ____ (5) tuition assistance
 ____ (6) GSP workshop (Fall '73)
 ____ (7) departmental workshops in human processes conducted by Office of Personnel Development
 ____ (8) Other (please specify) _____
10. Do you plan to participate in any programs in the future? ____ (1)yes ____ (2)no (57)
 ____ (3) don't know yet
11. What does "career development" mean to you? (58)

Thank you very much. There is a Research Instrument Reaction Sheet on the following page which will allow you to let the researcher know how you felt about filling out the questionnaire.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT REACTION SHEET

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer each of the following items by placing an "X" above the word or phrase that is closest to your own point of view about the questionnaire you just completed.

1. In general, the questionnaire held my interest while I was completing it. (59)

<u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u>
Agree				Disagree

2. It seems to me that a summary of the results of this questionnaire will tell us something important about MIT and the people working here. (60)

<u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u>
Agree				Disagree

3. I found this questionnaire confusing and difficult to complete. (61)

<u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u>
Agree				Disagree

4. I believe this questionnaire will provide an adequate reflection of my own real feelings and attitudes. (62)

<u>Strongly</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Undecided</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly</u>
Agree				Disagree

Comments:

(63)

(64)

(65)

(66)

Appendix C: Staff Members at Culmination of Career

There were seven administrative staff members (5 male, 2 female) who reported they were at "the culmination of my career." We thought an analysis of this group might provide some interesting insights about individuals almost ready to retire. One surprising fact that came out was that the age range was 50 to 63 for this group. Yet there were a number of respondents (13: 8 males, 5 females) in the same age range (51-63) who did not feel they were at the culmination of their career. What makes the "culmination group" different? All but one were satisfied with the present job.³³ Of the non-culmination group with the same age range, all were satisfied with the exception of a male (51) who said he was satisfied "in part" and a woman (53) who reported she was "1/2 satisfied."

Four out of the seven in the culminating group have taken advantage of the development programs at MIT. All have long tenure (range: 21 to 37 years at MIT). This distinguishes them from the group which is in the same age range; the non-culminating group has a wider range of tenure (range: 4 to 34 years) with many more individuals with short to intermediate tenure (6 of them have 12 or fewer years at MIT).

The culminating group tends to report low to moderate desire in taking on additional responsibility and advancement to a higher level job and only three of them reported the highest rank for their ideal "opportunity for

³³The one who preferred another job now made this comment: "27 years in present type of job, would welcome a change." He also rated a job rotation program as 'very important.' He was only 52, seemed dissatisfied with his supervisor's role in his career. He reported maximum discrepancy between actual and ideal involvement of supervisor with job expansion, career planning, and increasing responsibility of the employee. His attitude tended toward reactive and negative. We conclude this from his answer to why he might leave ("death") and to the questions on counseling and development where he felt there should be "an attempt to place people in matching jobs, in the work they enjoy doing." The implication being that he did not enjoy his work. He does not want additional responsibility in his present job unless there is a chance for advancement to a higher level job.

promotion." They tended to be realistic about retiring as they reported reasons for leaving to be 'retirement' or 'husband retiring.' Only one (age 50) reported that he would leave MIT 'for a better job.' He was the same individual who added a comment to the question on culmination of career saying "not more to look forward to" and defined career development as "security, peace of mind," which is a very different kind of response from most other respondents.

The non-culminating group tends to be marginally better educated (85 percent have either some college or a B.A. as opposed to 71 percent in the culminating group) and also seem to be more willing to take on additional responsibility in their current job. 10 out of 13 reported that 'advancement to a higher position' was 'very important,' one did not answer, one reported 'important' and one (male, age 58) reported low interest in advancement.³⁴ We conclude that the non-culminating group is much more interested in accepting more responsibility in the current job and in moving into a position at a higher level than is the culminating group.

It is difficult to draw any conclusions about programs which might be useful for the culminating group, for they consist of a small number.

³⁴ He was a unique case. He wrote 35 lines of comment on the questionnaire, has an M.A. and is very interested in MIT, his work, and his office, according to his comments. Yet he says he would leave MIT for a better job elsewhere and reports maximum discrepancy on desired opportunity for promotion. He also wants programs to help develop skills to do his present job better and values a supportive organization climate. Excluding the low value he places on advancement (and disregarding the inconsistencies in his questionnaire), he seems to fit with the rest of the non-culminating group.

It might be worth exploring why the three youngest of them (males, ages 50, 52, 54) felt that they were at the end of their careers when the normal retirement age is 65, and we could assume they have at least 10-15 more productive work years left. Two of them expect to be at MIT for five or more years, while the third does not know how much longer he will work at MIT. How can MIT help these people make productive use of the last decade of their careers if they have already adopted the mental set that their careers are at an end? We have one clue in a subject's desired job rotation programs. We might look at other employee groups (non-administrative) to check the association between age, feeling that one's career is at its culmination, and desire for job rotation.

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